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The study at hand endeavors to better match the aims of teacher evaluation with teacher development perspectives. A framework of comprehensive evaluation aims is rationalized and current models of teacher development are outlined and critiqued. The two areas of research (evaluation and teacher growth) are then correlated. A bracketing of the concepts occurs in the introduction and in the conclusion, as evaluation and teacher growth models are regarded in the context of the evolution of teacher education. Teacher induction and inter-agency cooperation are highlighted as current practices that may further serve to integrate teacher supervision aims with teacher development. An extensive bibliography is included. (Author/JD)

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# TOWARD THE INTEGRATION OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT WITH TEACHER EVALUATION AIMS

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CORRELATING EVALUATION AIMS WITH TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

## PREAMBLE

This paper is primarily directed toward making better matches between educational evaluation aims and teacher growth perspectives. Comprehensive evaluation aims will be investigated, toward improving this match. However, teacher growth is markedly defined by evolving institutions and practises of teacher education. Therefore, the author believes that we may better correlate evaluation practises with teacher growth perspectives if we remain mindful of the evolution of teacher education as a whole. Accordingly, in the written organization of this paper, both the introduction and conclusion will briefly highlight the evolution of teacher education institutions and practises. Thus bracketed, the main text will consist of three parts: I teacher evaluation a an overview, b comprehensive aims of teacher evaluation; II teacher development models: a description b critique III correlation of evaluation aims with teacher development - a framework for action.

## INTRODUCTION

There were few even modestly educated teachers in North America during the 1800s. Many teachers of that era had only a superficial grasp of english and mathematics, and they were regarded as generally incapable of reflecting upon and improving their own teaching (Tyack, 1967, p. 415). However, private Academies often became training schools for new teachers, as did county schools, in which the more studious students could imitate their instructors for a six to fourteen week period (Cubberley, 1920, p. 656; Love, 1978, p. 113; Johnson, 1968). Because the student teachers learned through imitation, such schools were often termed "model schools".

There are many reasons why North American teacher education remained unevolved throughout most of the 1800s: the simple agricultural life of the time; absence of cities; the isolation and independence of people; revolutionary war costs; few industries; poorly developed trade; lack of full suffrage; the "westernization" process required of immigrants to survive (Cubberley, 1920, p. 656; Patterson, 1976, p. 10-26). Into the late 1800s certificates of fitness by provincial or state governments assured the public only that the teacher could write, calculate some mathematics, and was considered of sound morals (Lazerte, 1951, p. 18).

In the 1890s, Summer or Weekend Teachers' Institutes were formed to up-grade common school teachers in their understanding of subject matter. The Teachers' Institutes served a stop-gap function in giving temporary relief to the pressing needs for teacher upgrading, before Normal Schools gained acceptance (Richey, 1957, p. 42). The first government controlled Normal School in North America was opened in Montreal in 1836 (Lazerte, 1951, p. 19). In the United States, Horace Mann inspired many fellow citizens to regard teacher Normal schools as the mainspring of the whole public school system that he had vigorously

advocated. By 1846 the first publically-funded Normal School was established at Bridgewater, Massachussetts, and from the late 1800s until about 1920 a "quantitative expansion" took place in the whole field of teacher education (Axtelle, 1940, pp. 32-33).

As the Normal Schools began to graduate teachers, these teachers travelled throughout the country, often speaking at still-thriving Teachers' Institutes. Soon, the typical subject-content review of the Institutes began to be thereby displaced by an emphasis on methods and pedagogic principles. By the 1920s, admission requirements in Normal Schools had risen, and by 1930 a high school certificate was required to enter teacher training college. Inservice that had been aimed at fulfilling basic needs of backward systems and poorer teachers became vastly improved. Teacher training of the early 1900s also included Summer Normal Schools, evening extension courses, local teachers' reading circles, classroom supervision and consultation, and correspondence courses (Richey, 1957, pp. 43-52). Thus, a previously narrow teacher education emphasis on limited subject matter expanded to include cultural expression, pedagogy, specialist councils in vocation education, art, music, and home education, as well as management according to "scientific" principles and the provision of distance education (Harris, 1976, p. 180).

By the 1950s Faculties of Education were becoming commonly established. Along with methods in special subjects these Faculties offered curriculum organization, training of principals and administrators, supervision, philosophy and psychology course work. These broadened course offerings were for the most part still at the undergraduate level (Kandel, 1966, p. 36). School boards often subsidized such studies by bonuses, scholarships or increments in salary. A powerful lever in increasing the quality of teacher education has been seen to be the establishment of government certification. An example of this leverage would be the establishment of British Columbia's "permanent teaching certificate" in 1937 which was granted according to each teacher's course credits. The complexion of teacher education changed permanently in the 1950s in another way—at last both elementary and secondary teachers were being trained together toward professional status (Johnson, 1967, p. 22). Less and less stigma of intellectual inferiority would be attached to the elementary teacher.

In the 1960s and 1970s graduate schools of Education began to thrive across Canada. Teachers' credentials were generally expanding as they continue to grow in the present. While some educators make the point that such specialization can degenerate the relationship between the theory and practise of education (Schaffer, 1980; Schubert, 1980, Schwab, 1978), it is commonly recognized that higher qualifications accrue both financial rewards and professional prestige to the teacher.

Current Canadian teacher education appears to be highly animated on two fronts. Major efforts are being made to:

1. extend the practicum aspect of teacher training, in the form of internships or a more fully supported induction process;

2. enhance the interagency planning and research (of Ministries, boards of education, district administrators, teacher federations, and universities), especially in support of the continuum of teacher education.

## I TEACHER EVALUATION

### An Overview

In view of the fact that the teaching profession in Canada has evolved, and appears to be continuing to do so, it is important that evaluations of teachers reflect respect for teachers' professional autonomy. Theodore Sizer (1985, p. 183-196) promotes this attitude of respect as he sees an avenue to thus acknowledge authority to the school person closest to the student - the teacher.

McLaughlin (1984) reminds us that evaluation is the core of school improvement strategies, vitally effecting 1. teacher motivation, 2. school communication and sharing of instruction goals 3. principal leadership 4. teacher development. However, Darling-Hammond (1986) points out that there needs to be more careful discrimination between 1. professional evaluation of teachers and 2. bureaucratic assessment of (employee) teachers. Stiggins (1986), Acheson and Gall (1987) have contrasted evaluation toward growth, versus evaluation for accountability. Stiggins adds that summative assessment aimed at accountability is irrelevant to the practise of the majority of teachers. Pendergrass (1981) reflects the seriousness of this problem as he notes that most staff development efforts themselves are aimed at correcting teachers' weaknesses.

Weber (1987(b), p. 56-57) concludes his synthesis of current research on evaluation by asking how teacher development strategies can coexist with accountability requirements. He suggests a two-pronged district approach of 1. developmental evaluation and 2. assessment procedures for marginal teachers. He further suggests that appropriately separate supervision roles be established. Stiggins and Bridgeford (1984) and Reyes (1986) have noted that current evaluation systems in education attempt to accomplish two potentially conflicting purposes: 1. to encourage teacher development and improve instructional quality and 2. judge teacher effectiveness and acquire evidence of incompetence.

Holly and Blackman (1983) have termed the current divergency of aims in teacher growth the 1. developmental model, that emphasizes continuing teacher education and 2. deficit model, that aims to satisfy administrative accountability requirements. Huddle (1985) notes that regular observation of teachers in a deficit mode is insufficient because: 1. such observation occurs too infrequently, 2. state and local criteria for "good teaching" establish some expectations but are

insufficient in establishing effectiveness; 3 many teachers operate autonomously in determining content and method. Cohen and Miller (1980) and Smyth (1984) have challenged us to discriminate between district control of school instruction and district coordination of instruction.

Broudy (1983) further criticizes evaluation procedures that are solely focused on the competency of teachers. Such a narrow approach is seen to: disregard teaching's subtleties and complexities; downgrade the socio-economic status of teachers as an externally governed body; paralyze hope that teaching is a profession comparable to other professions. At the same time, it should be noted that a wide variety of evaluation procedures have been clearly described (Stake, 1976; Weber, 1987(b)). Such methods include: teachers' own goal-setting; comparison of student achievement with teachers' techniques; observation of performance objectives; collaborative supervision; instructional research; adversarial examination; whole-staff assessment schedules; and institutional policy analysis.

Still, narrow evaluation practices predominate in schools largely due to the fact that equality among school personnel is defined by uniformity of credentials and standards, without provision for the evaluation of each teacher's development of unique strengths. Despite strong efforts to broaden the evaluative criteria of teacher development (Eisner, 1985; Chapters 4, 5 and 6; Green, 1985; Gage, 1984; Hunter, 1982; Peterson, 1979; Macdonald, 1979; Stake and Easley, 1978; Ryle, 1967) supervision is usually technical, sometimes clinical, and rarely artistic in nature (Sergiovanni, 1982). Therefore it seems paramount that current evaluation methodology become informed by more comprehensive evaluation aims.

Comprehensive Aims

In reflecting upon the constitution of comprehensive evaluation aims, it should be acknowledged that subsequent applications in actual school settings ought to take place in terms of 1. the soundness of evaluators' understanding of the individual school involved (Sirotnik and Oakes, 1981; Smith, 1981); and 2. teachers' and principals' own clarification of their philosophical commitment to the process (Wise and Darling-Hammond, 1985; Johnston, 1985). Certainly contextual variables such as instruction processes, the institutional setting, the community, and especially staff and students should be carefully considered in implementing any school change (Fullan, 1978, 1980, 1985; Burke and Fessler, 1983).

Sergiovanni (1985) compares the planning of instructional supervision to an architect making houseplans. Reyes (1986) is in agreement that form should follow function in the way that evaluation systems are constructed. He claims that it is more intelligent to develop special criteria of evaluation than employ a "one size fits all" set of standards for teacher evaluation. Raths and Preskill

(1982) as well as Stodolsky (1984) have previously noted that the key to making evaluation work at the district level appears to be the flexibility with which evaluation criteria are applied.

In contrast with flexible approaches to evaluation, Zimiles (1987) clearly criticizes what he terms the common "psychological approach" to evaluation. He notes that teachers' complex psychological processes and their interactions with students have not been measured with precision. Nevertheless, Zimiles echoes Schwab's (1958) perceptions as he censures psychological evaluators who ignore their own disabilities of precision, and resort to either 1. ignoring all but the simplest of education relationships or 2. describing complex and vital ideas and interactions with crude or arbitrary measures. On the other hand, in studying teachers' thought processes, Clark and Peterson (1984, 1986) call for more integrated research efforts in which the manifold aspects of teachers' cognition are examined in all of their interactive complexity.

In addition to carefully defining the teaching task, respecting the complexity of teachers' thinking and enabling flexible methods, Kemmis (1982) informs us of principles of conviviality that are consistently worth taking into account throughout the evaluation process: 1. the autonomy and responsibility of all actors; 2. consistent rationality 3. the bounds (of conflict and commonality) of the community 4. the worth of plurality of values 5. the presence of self-criticism, internal evaluation and 6. propriety in the production and distribution of information.

Darling-Hammond, Wise and Pease (1983, p. 290) in the Rand Report, outline five ways in which current research has characterized teachers being evaluated: 1. crafts persons 2. labourers 3. managers 4. professionals 5. artists. They go on to state that every teacher evaluation system must embody a definition of the teaching task. The study at hand is written with the belief that the aims of evaluation need to be broadened and clarified in order to consistently: 1. support and refine any constructive definition of the teaching task; 2. respect the complexity of teachers' thought processes; 3. enable flexible evaluation methods in professional inservice activities and 4. maintain principles of conviviality throughout the process of evaluating teacher development. Broudy (1983) reminds us that since the time of the Sophists, teachers and students have defined their own teaching relative to three styles: 1. didactics - organization of materials in systematic segments, followed by drill and testing, 2. philetics - teaching through personal communication, sharing, in trust and 3. heuristics - teaching and learning by inquiry. Broudy adds that an evaluation perspective that is narrowly aimed toward assessing competency is favouring didactic teaching.

What more does an evaluator need to take into account so that their evaluation aims are more comprehensive? Surely the philetic style of teaching can be better perceived in terms of the interplay between ethics and judgment of teacher and student. The purposeful quality of school interaction could then be evaluated. Clear

perceptions about teachers' sense of judgment could be obtained through a focus on dialogue as well as student and teacher reflection upon education practise (Schon, 1985; Olson, 1983). Nisbet (1978) has explained that such an evaluation would be framed by the "logic of communication", as differentiated from regular classroom observations in the "logic of demonstration" that competency assessment seeks.

Comprehensive evaluation would also include the heuristic style of teaching by focusing upon the creative, explorative drive that can be nurtured between teacher and student. Thus, heuristics might be regarded as within the "logic of discovery" (Nisbet, 1978). Explorative drive could be better understood through various forms of documentation of daily school experiences. For example attention might be given to teachers' log-books that describe unique class activities; noted rationales for classroom organization and seating; sets of slides that represent the fundamental aims of a school staff; teachers' scrap book collections of original student work in different subjects.

Another recent sociological theory may help to rationalize a comprehensive set of evaluation aims... Jurgen Habermas (1972) has pointed out that all knowledge is constituted because of three underlying human interests. He describes these knowledge-constitutive interests as 1. that of control - toward survival through utilitarian and political skill 2. that of consensus-communicating our needs and interests to our fellows and 3. that of emancipation - reaching for freedom of thought and action. It can be seen that through didactics the interest of control is served; through philetics the interest of consensus is met; and through heuristics emancipation is possible. The framework below (fig. 1) sets out this study's concept of a comprehensive set of evaluation aims. Naturally, such aims cannot be considered in the context of 'spot-check' or deficit model evaluation, because an inclusive evaluation perspective would seek teachers' strengths as well as their weaknesses. On the other hand evaluation based on support for the whole continuum of teacher education may yield comprehensive evaluation aims.

Fig. 1 COMPREHENSIVE EVALUATION AIMS

| Didactic Aims | Philetic Aims | Heuristic Aims |
|---|---|---|
| teachers' competencies | teachers' judgment of purpose | teachers' explorative drive |
| [toward control] | [toward consensus] | [toward emancipation] |
| [logic of demonstration] | [logic of communication] | [logic of discovery] |

## II TEACHER DEVELOPMENT MODELS

A Description:

Improved understanding of teacher career growth is strongly valued, in terms of making better contact with teachers' professional development needs, dealing with burnout stress, whole district inservice plans, and leadership concerns. (Hall, 1978; Anderson, 1979; and Howey, 1985; Burden 1983; Veenman, 1984; Weber, 1987b).

Of course, gross distinctions such as preservice, induction and inservice stages need to be made in considering teacher development. But finer distinctions of teacher development have also been applied to inservice education itself. Teachers' progressive involvement in inservice has been seen to alter their attitude towards school innovations in general, and change both their level of use and their perception of innovations as they occur (Hall, 1978). Teachers' years of experience have seriously affected their inservice participation, particularly with regard to their expectations, aspirations, and different satisfactions obtained (Anderson, 1979). All teachers' developmental needs and preferences should not be ignored because the lowest common denominator of teachers may have ignored their students' needs during inservice activity (Sharpe and Talbert, 1982; Willard and Garner, 1982).

The author's review of the research on teacher development models has resulted in a large measure of correspondence with the development viewpoint of Floden and Feinman (1980). They, then Veenman (1984) first proposed that there are three major approaches to teacher development that will be detailed and reconceived here.

1. **Socio-pedagogic approach:** Fuller and Hall describe (Fuller, 1969; Fuller and Bown, 1975; Hall, 1978) stages teachers pass through as they gain experience in the class: 1) the survival stage of the first year or so a teacher enters the profession and attempts to cope with class management as well as grasp schooling realities; 2) adjustment or mastery stage, of two or four years during which planning, organization and curriculum methods can be integrated; 3) mature or impact stage, when the experienced teacher is confident and willing to try new methods.

Corresponding with these stages of teacher development, Hall (1978) and Burden (1983) submit that there exist related teacher concerns. At the survival stage teachers are self-oriented. During the adjustment stage they are centered on self as teacher. Lastly, Burden claims they are pupil-centered during their mature stage of development. Glickman's (1985) re-casting of Hall's (1978) description of teachers' three developing concerns about school change are notable: 1. teachers who have orientation concerns - what is the change and why should I do it? 2. teachers with integration concerns - I'm interested, I know something about it - how do I do it? 3. teachers refinement concerns: I'm doing this and I want to experiment to improve it.

2. **Cognitive-psychological approach:** Oja and Sprinthall's work (1978) and Sprinthall's (1980) research relies on theories of cognitive science. Erickson's studies (1963) informed this psycho-cognitive approach to teacher development, as have Witherell and Erickson's (1978) insights. In addition, Kohlberg's (1969) theory of ethical development, and Loevinger's (1976) theory of ego development are taken into account by Sprinthall and his Minnesota researchers. All of the cognitive theories related to teacher development posit a sequence of growth of cognitive structures, or stages which are organized themselves invariantly, hierarchally. Teachers' cognitive development is thus seen to develop sequentially from lesser to greater complexity. (Glassberg, 1979; Hunt and Joyce, 1967).

Christensen (1983) notes that other psychological theories of adult development, such as those of Jung, Freud, Allport, Gesell and Maslow, can be associated with teachers' role and task maturation. Any application of such theories to teacher growth would be based on the assumption that human development directly results from changes in cognitive structures. The quality of internal, mediating cognitive processes would vary according to both maturation and experience levels.

3. **Structural approach of teacher centers:** Teacher centers are characteristically mixed groups of educators who tackle process goals such as: exploratory learning, building teachers' motivation, curriculum-making, and extension of teachers' professional status in self-determination. Although currently wide-spread in North America, teacher centres are a British invention. The British teacher centres arose in response to the expansion of the curriculum field. As new ideas expanded rapidly after the second world war, British centers began to be organized; by 1970, 300 centers existed in various forms - from one room gatherings to multi-level, polished institutions (Schools Council Publications, 1970, pp. 5-10). Edelfelt and Hruska (1982; p. 80-88) having participated in an exchange between British and American teacher centers, claim that Americans still have much to learn from the British centres' organization, in terms of their diversity, autonomity, and their level of curriculum making.

Mertens (1982, p. 65) explains that teacher centers have evolved from the premise that the appropriate foundation for inservice education is teacher-perceived needs. From studying 52 American teacher centers, Mertens (1982) further described the centers as optimally providing teachers a collegial, supportive environment, accessibility of place and time on a continuing basis, current and credible sources of knowledge as well as high-profile responsibilities to both teacher and student needs.

Schmieder and Yarger (1974, p. 5) inform us that the 600 American teacher centers they studied exist under a diversity of names such as staff development center, educational cooperative, training complex, learning resources center, and community clinic. Teacher centers can be generally exemplified as unique, and more responsive to particular individuals and systems than to any set model (Taque, 1976, p. 20).

However, most teacher centers amalgamate four services: library, audio-visual resources, original learning activities and instructional development (Peterson, 1975). The teacher center has been described as the meeting place of a mutually dependent community that wishes to take a critical look at their present practise (Apelman, 1979; De Vaney, 1979, p. 21). Teacher centers, have had the most phenomenal acceptance as a linking agency between teachers at various stages of their careers (Burke, 1980, pp. 228-234).

Critique of Teacher Development Models

**Critique.** Feiman and Floden (1981) criticize all three approaches to teacher development in that a wholesale adoption of any teacher development model may: 1. presume (an unclarified) end state of maturity; 2. lack empirical justification of common growth stages; 3. ignore great variations in individual teacher's level of development upon entry into the profession. 4. assume a relatively invariant sequence of changes leading to an "end state". 5. mistake differences in teachers' personalities or instructional approaches as separate categories or stages of development. 6. assume a biological approach to development which inherently deals with structural change in an organism, progressing from the simple to the complex, and from general to specific skills. 7. take for granted undefined 'cognitive structures'.

Adams (1982, p. 42) presents critical insight from his five-year longditudinal-study of education program graduates' perceptions and behaviour. Contrary to Fuller's (1969) varigation of concerns, he found becoming teachers uniformly held high priority concern for their impact on students through the years - not specifically in their mature stage. However their survival concerns for themselves did indeed diminish with experience. Also, academic impact concerns remained high through all experience levels. Mertens and Yarger (1982) also point out that many teachers with maturity of experience simultaneously have survival needs. That is, these developmental stages shouldn't be regarded as mutually exclusive.

Cruikshank et al (1986, p. 357) note that teachers develop differentially in terms of cognition, moral growth, and in personality (ego development); heightening the complexity of each individual's growth: Encountering such diversity of complexity in individual teacher's development, Ingvarson and Greenway (1984) and Tabachnick (1985) have made an effort to approach teacher development through the personal biographies of particular teachers. They underscore the need for a cultural perspective in coming to terms with teacher development.

The interplay of external social factors and teacher's development shouldn't be underestimated. Ward (1985) pictures teachers as embedded in a social context of: 1. legislative and policy actions of government(s) 2. the particular nature of the teacher work force as a whole body 3. the peculiar nature of schools 4. administrators' roles with teachers. Taken together, these social factors arise in relation to district change such as evaluation thrusts, credential requirements, retirement patterns, rising levels of teachers' own education, isolation, and district coordination efforts.

Small wonder then, that Glickman (1983) was unable to find a direct correlation between the conceptual level of teachers and their performance in schools. Such findings mitigate against depending on any developmental perspective to improve school effectiveness (Glickman, 1987; Feiman and Floden, 1980). Instead, effective schools might better be supported through peer supervision, team curriculum making, coaching, teachers' participation in school planning, counselling and reflective seminars; over and above clear-cut assessment procedures of dismal or neglectful teachers (Huddle, 1985; France, 1982; Ashton, 1982, pp. 18-21).

Christensen (1983) has synthesized research prescriptions for early, mid and late career professional development, and charges that too often the fact that teachers are truly adult learners is overlooked. Their needs should not be regarded as either unchanging or standard. Newman (1980) has outlined four stressful transitional periods in teachers' professional lives: first year, tenth year, twentieth year and retirement. Teacher stress has been found to be relieved by reflection time being provided to assess the class situation in the perspective of their whole development.

So while dependence on teacher's development models is not advised in terms of prescription, the fact remains that teachers do develop in many areas, and there appear to be distinct concerns that teachers address variantly at different times in their career. The author considers that the different approaches to teacher development are complementary and informative but not prescriptive panaceas. Longditudinal studies such as Ayers (1983) may yet inform us considerably on the career-long development of teachers.

## III CORRELATION OF EVALUATION AIMS WITH TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Even though no uniform culture of teaching can be seen to exist (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986), teachers' daily interactions and consistent commitment bespeak their ongoing involvement in the social construction of school reality (Luckmann, 1978). Still, Meyer and Rowan (1978) and Blumberg (1983) have drawn attention to the fact that schools can mitigate against evaluation when they are loosely coupled organizations. No one would believe, however, that teachers exist in a social vacuum of "spontaneous development" (Stones, 1984).

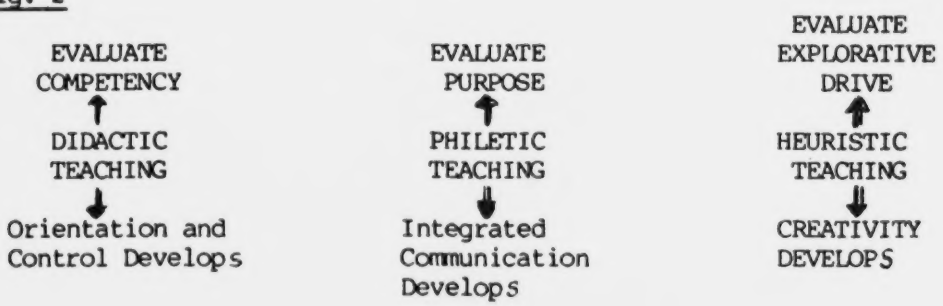
Cultural linkages should be recognized in schools, just as bureaucratic relationships are. Firestone and Wilson (1985) relate some cultural linkages between principals and teachers that contribute to higher quality in teacher evaluation: the communication of positive stories; creating and maintaining meaningful school symbols and rituals; the consistency of personal interaction in class, in staff meetings, and at district events.

Crow and Peterson (1983) outline commonalities between teacher development practices and evaluation aims: 1. both have the role and function of feedback and 2. the reasons for evaluation stem from

various professional development needs and interests. Further, Broudy's (1983) portrayal of historical teaching styles at once broadens the parameters of evaluation aims and signifies fundamental criteria for teacher development. The integration of evaluation aims and teaching development is valuable to the degree that such a correlation will: 1. support any constructive definition and refinement of teaching; 2. respect the complexity of teachers' thought processes; 3. enable more flexible evaluation methods; 4. support principles of conviviality.

Figure 2. below pictures the correspondence of comprehensive evaluation aims with teacher development.

Fig. 2




The author makes no assumption that the aims or development criteria above are sequential or hierarchal, in the belief that teachers' development is highly complex and shifting. Some researchers on the other hand, tend to regard development as a linear maturation process (Fuller and Bown, 1975; Glickman, 1980, 1983, p. 7-14). Rather, it is hoped that an expanded set of evaluation aims will positively affect teacher development by encouraging: 1. exploration - the growing edge of our interest which enthusiastically explores the situation before it, much like the subterranean tip of a root whose quivering cells at once multiporously ingest and deny new foods. Exploration is the blood system of wonder, that deepens the meaning of play. Explorative interests are like a child's first steps in that they are simultaneously uncertain and independent. Explorative drive is not a mood like cheerfulness or gloominess, for it has a definite although partly unknown object. There is always a spark of this interest in life within us, too often threatened or dulled by passive indifference. But the old adage of an ass starving to death between two bales of hay simply isn't true. For where ever there is life there is a direction of its own.

Sustained exploration leads to 2. competence; that is, following through with what we feel capable of doing. Digging many shallow holes without probing far enough to strike a spring is an example of character made frivolous by relentless, unsettled exploration. Vigorous competence is gained through self-constraint, and is built through habit. We refer to acquiring an order of facts or attaining degrees of manual skill through disciplined practice. Such preparation gives us strength of resolution to face adversity. Like a crystal forming in liquid, we add to the established order of our understanding

by fixing the attention repeatedly in concentration, forming positive habits that dispel chaotic behaviour. Disciplined competence imparts constancy to character, engendering perseverance toward valued goals. 3. Purpose - Through exercising judgment we become progressively discriminating as to whether our course of action is 'right' or less so; because if we had no purpose then as a sheer truism, one state of things would be as good as any other. Our sense of 'rightness' is a deep level of purposiveness that contrasts moment-to-moment resolutions. Wholehearted purposeful action is the unit of life for responsible action. Independent, incisive conduct takes place when speculative exploration and practical competence are linked by purpose. What we have in mind to do provides impetus or restraint to our explorations. Such purpose affords strength of heart that sustains a continuing, disciplined practice.

Professional development that emphasizes competence but strictly delegates purpose and denies exploration becomes mechanical drudgery - narrowly utilitarian. Teaching that is purposeful yet has little respect for competency or exploration becomes dogmatic, without lustre. Lastly, if school practice is explorative but is only diminutively purposeful and minimally addresses competence, we see that such schooling becomes capricious. Once alloyed, exploration, competence and purpose form a commitment to self evaluation that reaches beyond caprice, dogmatism or narrow utilitarianism in teaching.

Cronbach (1980) has made the striking comment that evaluation is the handmaid to gradualism as it is both conservative and committed to change. Yet, too often school district evaluation procedures have been seen to ignore teachers' heuristic development in the area of creativity and ignore teachers' philetic development of judgment.

> That Beauty, Good and Knowledge
> are three sisters.
> That dote upon each other,
> friends to man,
> Living together under the same roof,
> and never can be sundered
> without tears (Tennyson, 1898).

Perhaps Tennyson would have perceived today's narrow evaluation practises to undercut teachers' development. Is it not true that every teacher's sense of purpose, and the imagination with which they meet their task is as important as their level of competence?

## CONCLUSION

Between 1925 and 1940 inservice teacher education became identified with supervision. First existing as the strict observation of (elementary) teachers, supervision slowly took on a creative approach in curriculum planning with teacher involvement (Newlon, 1929, p. 405). However, while such curriculum planning was being touted as the "new supervision" many administrators felt uneasy and threatened. A concrete display of this tendency was seen in 1929 when the same group who in 1928 had met under the collective name of "The National

Conference on Educational Methods", just one year later called a meeting as "The National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction" (Krug, 1972, p. 163). In fact, superintendents' reports were being used as evaluative references both for staffing and program funding (Love, 1978, p. 114). The highly centralized powers of supervisory staff to prescribe methods and courses tended to undercut the previous integration of evaluation and teacher development, because too often rigid uniformity denied teachers' participation (Kandel, 1966, p. 38).

It is hoped that further identification of professional development with a more comprehensive set of evaluation aims will once more favour constructive integration of teacher supervision and inservice development.

Two current schooling arenas that may contribute to such an integration of supervision and teacher development are 1. teacher induction and 2. interagency, action research. In reviewing the evolution of teacher education (Appendix I), it can be seen that teacher induction and interagency research will potentially invigorate the next structural change in teacher education institutions and procedures.

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## Appendix (1)
## A MAP OF THE EVOLUTION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

| Teacher Qualification | Reasons for Change | | | Problems Solved | Intrinsic Problems |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Common School or Model-School Graduation: recognition of high school learning** | The general public was aiming for the privilege of education, so common or "model" school grads were called upon to be teachers. | 1850 | growing school pop. | -enabled wider community population to gain knowledge | -teachers were able to teach only to their own "level" ... high school qualification |
| **Provincial Normal School or Teachers' Colleges: school diploma** | In addition to the primary schools' growth, the public now required compulsory secondary education and therefore needed better-trained teachers. Colleges became degree-granting. | 1920 | exploding school pop. | -gave more prestige to teacher profession<br>-qualified more teachers in time of teacher shortage<br>-reinforced and extended practical curriculum knowledge | -little or no participation in improving current practises through research involvement |
| **Education Faculties in Universities: certification, B.Ed.** | Drive for more intellectual reflection in addition to practical experience; was thought to add to prestige of teaching profession. | 1950 | growing pop. | -although other Faculties often look down upon Education, a measure of public credibility was gained for Education as a profession when Education Faculties were formed<br>-undergrads made more aware of research efforts to improve education practise | -subjects being taught rather than how to teach subjects<br>-direct links with school personnel weakened<br>-theoretical perspectives ignore teaching-learning realities and needs |
| **Graduate Faculty of Education: M.Ed., Ph.D.** | Continuing demands for specialization. | 1960-1970 | growing pop. levelling off | -further research and scholarship achieved<br>-upgrading of teachers' status and certification | -Faculty specialization radically separates teaching and practicum supervision from scholarly activity ... theory and practise disjointed<br>-emphasis on scholarship often overrides teaching focus |
| **Teacher Centers: Interagency Research and Induction Support** | Recognition of worth of induction field support as well as benefits to research and district planning with inter-agency cooperation. | 1980 | growing pop. | -practical classroom problems meshed more with theory of education<br>-greater communication between education agencies<br>-better enables continuing teacher education as preservice, induction and inservice are mutually organized | -maintenance of commitment of agencies to communicate and share costs of planning, implementing and evaluating continuing teacher development practises |